



Fig. 2. Arthur F. Maxwell (right) and James M. Snelgrove straightening the heat probe after one of its lowerings on the 1930 Mijpac Expedition.

Article (cont. from p. 7)

1931). It is difficult to determine from the detailed description of this instrument in that reference what modifications he and his laboratory may have made of the original design. Bullard obtained his first heat-probe measurements with the NPL-built instrument in July 1952 from R.S. Discovery II in the Atlantic.

Maurice Ewing, at the Lamont (now Lamont-Doherty) Geological Observatory, set out to measure heat flow after using a barometer Bullard probe in 1933 that failed to work. By 1937 Robert Gerard and Ewing had developed a needle-probe device for measuring heat flow that was attached to the routinely used piston corer (Gerard et al., 1962).

What was so exciting about those early ocean measurements of heat flow? As Bullard (1965) eloquently recounted in the historical introduction to his book, *Terrestrial Heat Flow*, two committees of the British Association for the Advancement of Science, one in 1868 and one in 1915, had been appointed "to consider" underground temperatures and thermal conductivities in mines. Bullard conducted some of the experimental work for the 1915 committee, and, typically for whatever he was doing, he became intrigued by the breadth of the subject. What might be different about the deep ocean?

The state of the art was summarized in the Bullard et al. (1950) paper.

There are only a few dozen reliable measurements of heat flow from the continents. The values range between 0.5 and 3 mW m⁻², most of them being between 0.8 and 1.4. The mean is about 1.2 mW m⁻².

The continental heat flow is only accounted for by the radioactivity of the continental rocks. Since a large part of the material above the Mohorovicic discontinuity is at a depth of about 35 km must be granite or similar rocks, and since some heat must come from below the discontinuity, the difficulty is not so much to find a source for the observed heat as to explain why the flow is not greater than it is.

The petrological study of oceanic rocks and geomorphic work at sea have shown that the crust beneath the ocean basins is strikingly different from that underlying the continents.

In view of the striking differences in petrology and structure between the oceans and the continents it might be expected that the heat flowing from the oceans would be only a fraction of that from beneath the continents. In fact this is not so.

Since the oceans cover 71% of the earth's surface, a reliable estimate of the amount of heat flowing through their floors is of great importance in discussions of the earth's thermal history. The oceanic heat measurements are not, however, merely an addition to the continental ones; in view of the fundamental differences between the oceans and the continents the heat flow at sea poses a problem quite apart from that of the continental heat flow.

Immediately after the Mijpac Expedition, Revell wrote to Bullard on October 15, 1950: *caption of letter to Bullard of the Scripps Institution of Oceanography*

We managed to get at least seven good measurements of temperature gradients in the bottom muds. All but one of these indicate a gradient of about 0.12°C per meter. If some conductivity estimates can be used, this means that the heat flow from the sea floor is the same as that from the continents. To me, at least, this is a very surprising result, far apparently you this unexpected at all.

Revell and Maxwell (1952), in their letter to Nature, cited six measurements with the comment: "It is noteworthy that at five of the six localities, covering a total distance of nearly three thousand miles, the computed heat flow lies within 10 per cent of the average value for the continents."

Bullard (1952), in the letter to Nature, said that the "communication by Revell and Max-

well [from the Mijpac Expedition] gives a result which is completely unexpected, and demonstrates again how little we know of submarine geology."

When Bullard first concerned himself with measuring the flow of heat through the ocean floor in 1939 and had the opportunity at Scripps Institution in 1949, the tectonic demarcation between land and sea to geologists was sharp. Every bit of evidence was needed to understand the whole earth. As measurements accumulated, patterns of variation in heat flow through the ocean floor began to emerge, and orders of magnitude for "average" values improved. Langseth and Von Herzen (1970, p. 299) noted that "a surface flux of up to eight times the earth's average is observed near the axis of the mid-oceanic ridges."

These early heat-probe measurements, acquired with "a very clumsy apparatus" that began in Bullard's mind and hands, contributed considerably to the global knowledge of today's geophysicists.

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Edward C. Bullard 1907-1980

Professor Sir Edward Bullard was honored by his Queen in 1975 as a "world leader in geophysics." Each of those words is apt: "world"—his work indeed the earth was his domain in theory and field work, in civilized and remote regions, and at sea;

"leader"—because after listening to and conversing with students and colleagues he edged them toward carrying out large ideas from half-formed thoughts;

"geophysics"—a field between precise physics and imprecise geology that came into being only because a few outstanding and versatile scientists like Bullard could span the breadth.

"Chance led me into geophysics at a wonderful time," he said, "and it has been among the most rewarding experiences of my life to have played a part in the transformation of a backwater into a powerhouse" (Bullard, 1975a).

Teddy Bullard carried this off with a unique charm, with a near-Polish humor, and with an interest in people that made every chat with him memorable and every lecture by him a keen delight. His legacy will prove to be more than his own considerable scientific endeavors; it will include the accomplishments of his students and colleagues and a better effort even by his casual acquaintances. It has been said: "The thing looked so simple when Teddy explained it, it was only later you realized how deeply he understood" (Malheux, 1980).

He was an outgoing man, quite lacking in pomposity, yet very aware of status in his acquaintances. He observed the differences but never made invidious comparisons between his homeland and his adopted home country. Although he appeared disinterested in honors, one sensed that they pleased him.

Edward Crisp Bullard was born on September 21, 1907, in Norwich, England, where his father's family were brewers. In his early years he was not an outstanding student, but during high-school years he developed a keen interest in physics through a teacher. He entered Clare College, Cambridge, and graduated with first-class honors in physics. In 1929 he became a graduate student in the Cavendish Laboratory of Lord Rutherford, from which he received his Ph.D. in 1932 with a dissertation on the scattering of slow electrons in gases.

The first position available to the young physicist in those depression years was for the Department of Geodesy and Geophysics at Cambridge, as a demonstrator in surveying. As such, according to Bullard (who wrote a tribute to himself at the request of Walter Munk), he "embarked on a very profitable eight years in which he learned the elements of Earth science and carried out a remarkably diverse series of projects. The success of these was in large part due to the steady support of [Colonel Sir Gerald] Lennox-Conyngham, who was not at all disturbed when told that the police were looking for the perpetrators of an explosion which had left a hole in a road in Leicestershire" (Munk, 1978).

The first in the diverse series of projects was measuring small variations in gravity, for which Bullard developed an elegant technique for timing the swings of an invariant pendulum. The work was done during 1933-1934 in the East African Rift Valley, where on one occasion he and his wife Margaret were treed by a lion.

The explosion that disturbed the police was part of a group program to map the Paleozoic layer beneath eastern England by means of seismic refraction. At the 1936 meeting of the International Union of Geodesy and Geophysics in Edinburgh, Bullard met Princeton geologist Richard M. Field. It was Field's insistence that geologists must study the ocean floor. Bullard (1975a) said: "He would not take no for an answer, he would not stop talking, he had no doubts, he was embarrassing and sometimes a nuisance, and yet he struck the match that set earth science alight."

He invited me to the United States in 1937, and sent me out to sea with the Coast and Geodetic Survey and with Maurice Ewing. Upon his return to England, Bullard began seismic studies with Thomas F. Gaskell in the western approaches to the English Channel aboard two British sailing trawlers.

As a third venture into the young field of geophysics, Bullard measured the temperature gradient, or heat flow, on land in England and in South Africa in 1938-1939.

This was for a committee of the British Association for the Advancement of Science, appointed in 1935. Work of this kind, said Bullard once, "had been done extraordinarily early before" (Shor, 1984), and elsewhere he noted: "Great difficulty was experienced in finding suitable boreholes, but very satisfactory results were obtained from those that were found" (Bullard, 1965). The project led Bullard to pondering a means of measuring heat flow in the deep ocean.

On the advent of World War II, Bullard became an Experimental Officer in the Naval Scientific Service, first to develop methods for protecting ships from magnetic mines, then to develop methods for sweeping acoustic and magnetic mines. He moved on to intelligence investigations pertaining to the German development of rockets and to a study of the most economical ways of attacking firing sites in France. The *Times* noted that Bullard "built up around him an astonishingly versatile and effective establishment which, in the urgency of time, had when necessary, an utter disregard for the formalities."

This giant in geophysics died of cancer on April 3, 1980, in La Jolla. Only a few hours before his death he approved final changes on the paper "Direction of the earth's magnetic field in London, 1570-1975," with Stuart Malin of Edinburgh. Teddy made life interesting, and he faced death with courage.



At the change of command in 1976, the Albatross Award of the American Miscellaneous Society was transferred to Edward C. Bullard (right) from Roger Revell (left). It's a scrutiny bird, but a signal honor.

of normal civil service rules, and thus moved with a speed impossible for other establishments" (Malheux, 1980). His participation in matters for the Ministry of Defence continued for many years, and he served on the committee for a nuclear-test ban treaty also.

Bullard returned to Cambridge in 1945, where he found the laboratory in a shambles after 5 years of disuse, but he got it into operation and soon became head of the Department of Geophysics. The lack of research funds and lack of access to a research ship frustrated him to the extent that in 1948 he accepted the position as head of the Physics Department at the University of Toronto in Canada. There he initiated theoretical inquiries into the source of the earth's magnetic field, using the early computer system ACE. Bullard's long-pursued work on dynamo theory of the earth's core constitutes his most profound single contribution to knowledge of the earth.

In 1950 Bullard returned to England to succeed Sir Charles Darwin [grandson of the author of *The Origin of Species*] as Director of the National Physical Laboratory at Teddington. While chafing some at the responsibilities, he felt that he was an effective director, and he was able to do a substantial amount of his own researches. In fact, "through his position as director he was able to deploy the entire resources [by no means inconsiderable] of the computing division to carry out extensive numerical work required for the development of his [dynamo] theory" (Massey, 1980). The position and his competence gained him a knighthood in 1955.

Bullard in 1956 resolved his indecision about what kind of life he wanted by returning to Cambridge, again as head of the Department of Geodesy and Geophysics. There he felt that his primary commitment was to his own work and to helping a large number of very able graduate students. It was an era of ferment in the expanding field of geophysics, and Cambridge became a focal point. In 1965, for instance, Harry Hess, J. Tuzo Wilson, Drummond Matthews, and Fred Vine were all at Cambridge, and Bullard was reassembling the continents by computer with deceptively simplicity (Bullard, 1964). Seafloor spreading and plate tectonics were launched, and for those theories Teddy Bullard was a primary catalyst.

In his Cambridge years he also directed a major investigation into electromagnetic induction in the earth; he helped in establishing the technique of determining the age of rocks by the potassium-argon method; and he encouraged the application of modern computer techniques in geophysical problems. Always he was interested in the history of science, and he assembled a considerable library in it. This seemed to be an outgrowth of his interest in people: for an individual's memorial account he wanted to know not only the science but also the minutest details of that person's life. He quite enjoyed writing historical summaries of aspects of geophysics.

Bullard's association with Scripps Institution of Oceanography in La Jolla, California, began with a brief visit in 1948, followed by a 2-month stay in 1949 when his first heat-probe was developed (Shor, 1984). From the mid-1950's he was a frequent visitor to Scripps, where from 1963 to 1977 he held a part-time appointment as professor of geophysics. When he retired from Cambridge in 1974, he moved to La Jolla permanently. There he continued to work vigorously on what he called "his favorite topics of plate tectonics and the origin of the Earth's magnetic field," and he was drawn into an advisory role to the U.S. government on nuclear-waste disposal. In all, he published some 200 papers in a memorial account and a complete bibliography will be published by the Royal Society of London.

Bullard married Margaret Ellen Thomas in 1951; they had four daughters. Margaret was the author of several novels situated in various places where the family had lived. In 1974, Bullard married Ursula Margery Currow of New Zealand; she is an accomplished painter and sculptor.

This giant in geophysics died of cancer on April 3, 1980, in La Jolla. Only a few hours before his death he approved final changes on the paper "Direction of the earth's magnetic field in London, 1570-1975," with Stuart Malin of Edinburgh. Teddy made life interesting, and he faced death with courage.

- Awards to Edward C. Bullard**
- Sedgwick Prize, 1936
- Fellow, Royal Society of London, 1941
- Hughes Medal, Royal Society of London, 1953
- Foreign Honorary member, American Academy of Arts and Sciences, 1954
- Chree Medal, Physics Society, 1956
- Foreign Associate, National Academy of Sciences, 1959
- Day Medal, Geological Society of America, 1959
- Gold Medal, Royal Astronomical Society, 1965
- Agassiz Medal, National Academy of Sciences, 1965
- Wollaston Medal, Geological Society of London, 1967
- Versailles Medal and Prize, Columbia University, 1968
- Royal Medal, Royal Society of London, 1975
- Bowie Medal, American Geophysical Union, 1975
- Albatross Award, American Miscellaneous Society, 1976
- Maurice Ewing Medal, American Geophysical Union, 1978
- The facilities of the Cambridge Department of Geodesy and Geophysics were named the Bullard Laboratories in 1980.

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This tribute was contributed by Elizabeth N. Shor, La Jolla, CA 92037.

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Cover. This weak-beam micrograph shows a twist boundary in an experimentally deformed olivine single crystal from San Carlos (Arizona). It was taken with a 125 KeV transmission electron microscope. The scale bar is 2500 nm. Such orthogonal arrays of screw dislocations are also commonly observed in naturally deformed peridotites. They are produced during deformation or annealing events either in the earth's mantle or during the ascent of the olivine-bearing bodies to the surface. The micrograph was taken by Daniel L. Ricolin (advisor: D.L. Kohlstedt, Department of Materials Science and Engineering, Cornell University, Ithaca, New York).

An Invitation

Would you like to be on the cover of *Eos*? If you have any illustrations with both aesthetic charm and scientific interest—photographs (preferably black and white) of geophysical phenomena, experimental results, or graphs—*Eos* would like to consider them for publication on the cover. Send the original illustration or 8 x 10 inch (20 x 25 cm) glossy photo with a short (50-200 words) explanation that can serve as a caption. You may also submit a more extensive news item or even a short article to accompany a proposed cover. Captions will be by-lined. If the material has been previously published, please supply a copyright release from the copyright owner. Send it to *Eos* Cover, AGU, 2000 Florida Avenue, N.W., Washington, DC 20009.

News

Cretaceous Boundary

Four years after it was first proposed, the theory that a colossal meteorite struck the earth 65 million years ago continues to build toward a consensus—this despite recent findings that volcanic eruptions might also have caused the "iridium anomaly" that is the impact theory's best evidence (*Eos*, February 7, 1984, p. 41).

High concentrations of iridium at the Cretaceous-Tertiary boundary were first noticed in sediments from Italy, Denmark, Spain, and other locations around the world by Walter Alvarez, his father Luis, and their Berkeley colleagues. They concluded that the source of the extra iridium must have been extraterrestrial because the element shows up in crustal rocks only in very small amounts and no one could think of a mechanism that would distribute iridium from the mantle so widely around the surface of the globe. The Alvarez group postulated that a meteorite about 10-km wide had collided with the earth, throwing up a planet-encircling cloud that blocked out sunlight, ended photosynthesis, and snuffed out many of the land and sea creatures of the Mesozoic, including the dinosaurs.

Until recently, the iridium anomaly was virtually the only support for this idea. In November, however, two researchers from Yale University, Jean-Marie Luck and Karl Turekian, reported what may be even more compelling evidence. They analyzed osmium isotopes in boundary-layer rocks from the Newark and Colorado basins—osmium is another platinum-group metal that shows up anomalously high in these sediments—and found nearly equal amounts of ¹⁸⁷Os and ¹⁸⁶Os, an isotopic ratio much more characteristic of meteorites than of crustal rocks. Luck and Turekian had first hypothesized that if a normal geochemical process such as precipitation from seawater had concentrated the osmium, they would see the higher ratio found in terrestrial rocks. After examining a number of oceanic manganese nodules, they found that this was indeed the case, and so concluded that it was a meteorite impact for possibly two impacts, since they found different ratios at the two sites that deposited the osmium.

Planetary Science Budget

The fiscal year 1985 budget for the solar system exploration program of the National Aeronautics and Space Administration (NASA) is very promising (see *Eos*, February 14, 1984, p. 49). As announced by the Office of Management and Budget, the document includes a new start-up program for the *MCCO* (Mars Geoscience Climatology Orbiter) mission. Mixed in with the set of encouraging figures of NASA's Space Science and Applications budget plan, unfortunately, is the more uncertain area of funding that includes support for the Research and Analysis program. These programs seem to be less visible in the budget, but they include important components of the space science program. A large portion of these funds is provided to university scientists to support research at the highest levels of excellence.

In a recent letter to members of the academic scientific community, William L. Quinke, chief scientist of NASA's Solar System Exploration Division, expressed a note of uncertainty and caution about the fiscal year 1985 budget operating level for the Research and Analysis programs. According to Quinke: "The reduction in [Research and Analysis] funds will require that we abandon, temporarily, plans to address all the problems that are facing us, and concentrate our support on a few specific areas to preserve some continuity of participation and to maintain capabilities for future missions."

Quinke pointed out that an augmentation of \$15 million will be needed to maintain the support level of funding realized by the fiscal 1984 appropriation. Indeed, an augmentation for the research and analysis program is included in the president's budget, but only in the amount of \$6 million. Conceivably that number could be increased by Congress if the need were made known.—PMB

Titan Ocean: Ethane, Methane, Nitrogen

Detection of the atmosphere of Saturn's satellite Titan by the Voyager 1 spacecraft indicated an abundance of only 3 mol % methane (CH₄). Recently J. I. Lunine, D. J. Stevenson, and Y. L. Yung calculated that 3 mol % methane is sufficiently low to preclude the stable coexistence of liquid methane on Titan's surface, which has a temperature of 94 K (*Science*, 222, 1225, 1983). Instead, Lunine et al. suggest that Titan's atmospheric methane may have broken down by a catalyzed

With this new information, is there now a consensus on the meteorite theory? Not yet, says Charles Orh of the Los Alamos National Laboratory, who provided Luck and Turekian with the sample from Colorado's Raton Basin and who was the first to find the iridium anomaly in freshwater sediments. "We can't yet be sure of a volcanic source—we need to learn more about the platinum metal ratios in the mantle." Recent findings at Kilauea in Hawaii show that iridium can be concentrated on the surface after settling out from volcanic emissions. It would have required an enormous explosion to distribute this volcanic material globally in the Cretaceous-Tertiary boundary layer, however, and the sort of slow, oozing flows that normally accompany eruptions like Kilauea are not consistent with this.

Most frustrating of all for the meteorite-theory faithful is the continuing lack of any evidence of an impact. So far, about 100 craters around the world have been evaluated as possible candidates, according to Thomas J. Ahrens of the California Institute of Technology, "but none seem to be the right size and age." For this reason, many people favored the idea of an ocean impact right from the start. After all, Ahrens points out, the climate was warmer 65 million years ago, water wasn't locked up in polar ice caps, and there was more ocean.

An ocean impact would also explain why no crater has been identified—more than half the ocean floor that existed 65 million years ago is gone, subducted back into the mantle. Furthermore, recent reports of small spherules that appear to be altered impact droplets of basaltic origin found in boundary layer clays in northern Italy and the central Pacific by Alessandro Montanari and colleagues at Berkeley make the case for a sea-floor impact even stronger. But where are the remnants of the great tsunamis and submarine landslides that would have followed such an event? No one has yet come up with a good answer.

Meanwhile, Charles Orh and others are looking for iridium anomalies at other periods in geologic history. This leads to another question: If meteorites do occasionally hit the earth, are they responsible for mass extinctions? Orh and various colleagues have checked for high iridium concentrations in clays known to be deposited during other pe-

riods of wholesale extinctions, including two trilobite-brachiopod boundaries in the late Cambrian, where they found no iridium anomaly. Orh has also checked boundary layers from the Ordovician-Silurian and the late Devonian. No anomalies there, either. But he continues to search for other examples of iridium excesses across time and place to widen the geographic range of his studies of the Cretaceous-Tertiary boundary layer to establish a more global pattern.

Walter Alvarez, with whom it all started, will have a paper in *Science* next month in which he counters the counterargument that the extinctions at the end of the Mesozoic were gradual and so couldn't have been caused by one catastrophic event. Alvarez and his coauthors, based on a review of the existing paleontological literature, see "a sharp dropoff" right at the iridium-rich boundary layer for four groups of marine invertebrates: ammonites, one group of bryozoans, brachiopods, and bivalves. "Some paleontologists have said that the dropoffs were more gradual," Alvarez told *Eos*, "but we looked back at the record, rather than what they say the record shows."—TR

The resulting ocean would consist of a mixture of CH₄ and C₂H₆ in the proportion of 3 to 1.

The dissociation steps of C₂H₆ involve loss of hydrogen to escape, making the process irreversible. The postulated set reactions are: 2CH₄ → C₂H₆ + H₂ and 2CH₄ → C₂H₆ + 2H₂. The intermediate molecule C₂H₆ plays the role of catalyst and shielding of C₂H₆ from photolysis. CH₄ is calculated as being broken down in Titan's atmosphere at a rate of 1.5 x 10¹⁰ mol s⁻¹. The evolved H₂ and H₂ would leave the exosphere at rates of 3.5 x 10¹⁰ and 7.2 x 10¹⁰ mol s⁻¹ respectively. The result is the production of an ethane-rich ocean of 1 km depth. The composition of Titan's present ocean was deduced from calculations of the C₂H₆-CH₄-N₂-C₂H₆ and N₂-C₂H₆ binary systems. To be consistent with Voyager observations, it was noted that the existence of several percent propane in the ocean would be compatible with the calculated proportions. The calculations also include a 100-200 km thick layer of solid C₂H₆ on Titan's ocean floor.

What is lacking to make a case for an ethane-rich ocean is more observational data. Lunine et al. note that important tests of the model are verification of the existence of CH₄ clouds with the correct opacity, detection of C₂H₆ saturation of the lower troposphere, and radar evidence of an ocean.—PMB

A cooperative geophysical/geologic transect of the Alaskan crust and upper mantle is being organized by the U.S. Geological Survey (USGS), the Alaska Division of Geological and Geophysical Surveys (ADGGS), the University of Alaska, and Rice University. The project is to be known as the Trans-Alaska Lithosphere Investigation (TALI). The route of TALI lies along the north-south corridor of the trans-Alaska oil pipeline between Prudhoe Bay and Valdez and extends offshore across the Pacific and Arctic continental margins. The transect will incorporate several supplementary profiles intersecting the primary route. TALI is envisaged as a coordinated multidisciplinary effort among government, academic, and industry scientists and institutions.

To prepare a prospectus for the transect, a workshop will be held in Anchorage on May 20 prior to the meeting of the Seismological Society of America and the Currier/Allen Section of the Geological Society of America (May 30-June 1). The National Science Foundation is co-sponsoring the workshop. Some of the studies that will constitute important elements of TALI are under way or



will be initiated this year. Rice University and the University of Alaska are engaged in a cooperative study of the kinematics of deformation in the Brooks Range. ADGGS and USGS will continue geologic mapping and investigations in various areas along or near the transect route. To help launch TALI, the USGS will start this summer its Trans-Alaska crustal Transect (TACT) project to investigate the structure and evolution of the crust, using seismic refraction/reflection, geologic, gravity and magnetic techniques. The TACT project will begin along the southern onshore segment of the transect, between Valdez and the Alaska Range; several investigators from other institutions will be directly involved. Other institutions, including Cornell University (SEGORP), Lamont-Doherty Geological Observatory, and the University of Utah are exploring participation in TALI in 1983 and later years. The goal is to complete the transect by the end of this decade.

Geologists and geophysicists interested in participating in TALI or the May workshop should contact: Robert Page, U.S. Geological Survey, Mail Stop 77, 345 Middlefield Rd., Menlo Park, CA 94025 (415-323-8111); or John Davies, Alaska Division of Geological and Geophysical Surveys (907-474-6166), or David Stone, University of Alaska (907-474-7822), both at the Geophysical Institute, University of Alaska, Fairbanks, AK 99701.

This news item was contributed by Robert A. Page, who is with the U.S. Geological Survey, Menlo Park, CA 94025.

Geophysicists

Two AGU members received Fulbright scholarships for 1983-1984: John R. Holloway, professor of chemistry at Arizona State University, will be working in Australia. Teh-Lung Ku, professor of geological sciences at the University of Southern California, will be working in France.

In Memoriam

- The following AGU members are recently deceased. Their AGU section affiliation and year of joining AGU are shown:
- Julius Amato, 64. An AGU Fellow, Hydrology, joined 1952.
- Grover B. Crisp, 13, on April 20, 1983. Geodesy, joined 1980.
- Mahdi Salih Hantush, 63, on January 14, 1984. Hydrology, joined 1949.
- Allen A. Jergins, 80. Seismology, joined 1943.
- Jack H. Meek, 66, on October 12, 1983. Solar-Planetary Relationships, joined 1959.
- Helmut G. Poetschke, 68, in November 1983. Geodesy, joined 1976.

